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# THE CHILD

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UNITED STATES  
DEPARTMENT OF LABOR  
CHILDREN'S BUREAU



# THE CHILD

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Volume 9, Number 5

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## The Rural Child and the Children's Bureau<sup>1</sup>

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Chief, U. S. Children's Bureau

The Children's Bureau was created by Act of Congress in 1912, which directed it to "investigate and report upon all matters pertaining to the welfare of children and child life among all classes of our people." In the words of one of the advocates of the creation of the Bureau, Dr. Samuel McCune Lindsay of Columbia University:

"We want a place where the common man can go and get this information, a place that he will think of, the label upon which will be written so large that he can have no doubt in his mind as to where to go to get information relating to the children of the country."

Fact-finding functions have led inevitably to work in the development of standards and to advisory and consultation services. In fact, Julia C. Lathrop, its first Chief, in her first annual report, defined the "final purpose of the Bureau" as being "to serve all children, to try to work out the standards of care and protection which shall give to every child his fair chance in the world."

To these functions have been added the administration of grants to the States for maternal and child-health services, including the programs of emergency maternal and infant care for the wives of men in the four lowest pay grades of the armed forces and of aviation cadets; services to crippled children; and child-welfare services for the protection and care of dependent and neglected children and children in danger of becoming delinquent. Responsibility for enforcement of the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act is also placed in the Children's Bureau.

The early program of the Children's Bureau included studies of maternal and child care in the mountain areas of the South and the West, studies of nutrition of children in a mountain county of Kentucky, and a study of juvenile delinquency in rural New York. In the past 25 years the Children's Bureau has made many studies of child

labor and the welfare of children in the families of farm laborers, particularly agricultural migrants. Grants to the States under title V of the Social Security Act in accordance with specific statutory language are directed especially toward children in rural areas. Under these provisions, prenatal and child-health conferences, public-health-nursing service, diagnostic and other services for crippled children, and child-welfare services have been developed in hundreds of rural counties. Administrative activities under the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act take the Children's Bureau into cannerys and packing sheds and into farms where products are raised for interstate commerce, though the jurisdiction conferred in the act over child labor in agriculture is exceedingly limited.<sup>2</sup>

Special wartime activities of the Children's Bureau have included the development, in cooperation with the Department of Agriculture, the Office of Education, and other agencies, of guides and standards for the employment of young workers in wartime agriculture, and advisory service in stimulating State and local activities for safeguarding agricultural employment of children. This work has included standards for agricultural camps for young workers and studies of conditions under which children in migratory families live and work.

The Children's Bureau's interest in developing State-wide and Nation-wide services for maternal and child health, child welfare, and the safeguarding of juvenile employment, has special meaning for children in rural areas, who as a rule can have the benefit of such services only if the State participates in their development and financing.

Through assistance in planning and conducting the decennial White House Conference on Children, the last one held in 1940, and through its relationships with national organizations concerned with rural life and with the welfare of

<sup>1</sup> Address before Second General Session of White House Conference on Rural Education, The White House, Washington, D. C., October 4, 1944.

<sup>2</sup> The minimum-age standards of the act apply to children employed in agriculture only during such periods as they are required by State law to attend school.

children wherever they may live, the Children's Bureau shares with many other groups responsibility for the development of goals and standards and of plans of action.

Next to the home, the school is the most important agency shaping the life of the child. Concern with school-attendance laws and their enforcement, and with the accessibility and character of educational opportunity, is a necessary corollary to the efforts of the Children's Bureau to eliminate child labor and to safeguard youth employment. The Children's Bureau and the Office of Education have joined this fall in a Nation-wide Go-To-School Drive, which has the endorsement of the War Manpower Commission and the cooperation of the Office of War Information, and which has attracted widespread attention. Extension and improvement of the public schools are necessary parts of plans for the return to school of young workers in the period of reconversion.

Who are the rural children with whose welfare the Children's Bureau and other agencies represented in this conference are concerned? Fifty-one percent of the 36 million children under the age of 16 years in continental United States live in rural areas, according to the Final Report of the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy.<sup>3</sup> Farmers and farm laborers have larger families than city workers.

Thirty-four percent of the farm population but only 23 percent of the urban population are under the age of 16 years. This majority of the children of the Nation living in rural areas have far less than a majority of the resources of the Nation for health, education, and home life at their disposal.

Available income data, for example, those reported by the National Resources Committee in "Consumer Incomes in the United States, their distribution in 1935-36," indicate that the average family income and per capita income are lower in rural than in urban areas. The Final Report of the White House Conference shows that generally a relatively high proportion of children in the population coincides with a low per capita income. For example, the predominantly rural Southeast, the poorest region in the country, has about 12 percent of the national income and 25 percent of the children under 20 years of age.

Infant and maternal mortality rates have been consistently higher for rural than for urban areas.<sup>4</sup> In 1942 the infant mortality rate was 44 deaths per 1,000 live births in rural areas and 37 in

urban areas. The maternal mortality rate was 35 per 10,000 live births in rural and 28 in urban areas. Infant and maternal mortality have been greatly reduced since 1915—the infant mortality rate for rural areas has been cut 53 percent and the maternal mortality rate, 36 percent. While these reductions are impressive, progress in saving the lives of mothers and babies has not been so rapid in rural as in urban areas. One outstanding factor in the higher mortality rates in rural areas is the smaller proportion of births attended by physicians in hospitals. In 1940 only 37 percent of the births in rural areas were attended by physicians in hospitals as compared with 81 percent in urban areas. A most encouraging recent development has been a pronounced increase from 1940 to 1942 in the proportion of hospital births for rural mothers. In 1942, 50 percent of all births to mothers living in rural areas were attended by physicians in hospitals, an increase of 36 percent over 1940.

The improvement of the health of mothers and children, as well as the further reduction of mortality, is partly dependent on the extension of public-health facilities for this vulnerable section of the population. In 1942, 76 percent of the rural counties of the United States had no regular monthly prenatal clinics under the supervision of a State health agency. No provisions for regular monthly child-health conferences under the supervision of a State health agency existed in 69 percent of the counties.

Child-welfare workers paid in whole or in part from Federal funds under title V of the Social Security Act provided service to children in more than 400 counties (predominantly rural areas) in 1944. On May 31, 1944, approximately 44,000 children were receiving child-welfare service, of whom 67 percent were receiving service in their own or relatives' homes.

Data from a sample study of children 14 through 17, made by the Current Surveys Section of the Census Bureau in April 1944 indicate that a greater proportion of children living on farms than of nonfarm children are at work. Likewise, a greater proportion of farm children than of nonfarm children are not attending school. Of approximately 2,150,000 farm children 14 through 17 years of age, 40 percent were at work and 60 percent were not working. Of an estimated 7,000,000 nonfarm children 29 percent were working and 71 percent were not working. Including all children of the ages working or not working, 33 percent of the farm children were out of school as compared to 17 percent of the nonfarm children. The disparity between farm and nonfarm children is particularly marked in the 14- to 15-year-old group, in which 18 percent of the farm children

<sup>3</sup> Data in Chapter II of the White House Conference Final Report are chiefly from the 1940 Population Census, in which a rural area is defined as a place having less than 2,500 population.

<sup>4</sup> Certain vital-statistics data are available on the basis of rural areas defined as places having less than 2,500 population; but in order to make possible comparisons over a period of years, the vital-statistics figures in this paper are based on rural areas defined as places having less than 10,000 population.

were not attending school as compared to 4 percent of the nonfarm children. Most farm children's work is, of course, unpaid family work.

The volume of agricultural employment of children has increased greatly as a result of the war and the consequent increased demand for agricultural products, and the acute manpower shortage.

The experience of the Children's Bureau in enforcing the Fair Labor Standards Act has revealed substantial numbers of employed children 8, 9, and 10 years old, and other violations of child-labor laws and standards in industries relating to agriculture—such as the processing of food products—which involve chiefly children living in rural areas.

Inadequate school facilities are a corollary to agricultural child labor. School terms in many rural areas are short, and are interrupted to allow children to work on the crops. As a rule, school buildings and equipment are inferior, teachers' salaries are low, and opportunities for high-school education are far less, in most sections of the country, for the rural child as compared with the city child. True, progress has been made in consolidation of school districts and attendance units and in development of rural high schools, but far more remains to be accomplished if the rural child is to have educational opportunity commensurate with that afforded the child in the city. Opportunities for recreation and the development of cultural interests also are limited for rural youth.

The Final Report of the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy pointed out that farming and migration have gone hand in hand in this country since its early settlement. In recent years agricultural migration has been usually an escape from intolerable conditions, rather than a movement toward something that offered hope and opportunity. Large-scale agricultural operations have, in the words of the White House Conference, "converted part of agriculture into an intensely seasonal occupation requiring concentration of large numbers of workers at given places for brief periods and offering practically no work for the rest of the year."<sup>5</sup> Before the war it was estimated that there were 350,000 agricultural interstate migrants at any one time, and that as many as 1,000,000 in a year went from State to State for seasonal employment. These migratory families are large, as a rule—36 percent of the 24,485 persons in 6,655 such families studied in California were under the age of 15 years. The parents in such families are usually people with little or no education, who know no other kind of work than farm work and are forced by economic necessity to follow the crops. Farm wages are

comparatively low, and so much time is lost between jobs that the families cannot get ahead financially. Such figures as are available indicate that the number of migratory families is larger this year than in 1943.

Although the War Food Administration for the last two seasons has been routing adult foreign workers to insure the steady employment which is guaranteed under contracts made for them by their governments, our own migrant workers have no Government agency routing them to insure full employment. Often these family migrants are put out of farm labor camps where living conditions and sanitary facilities are good, in order that the foreign workers may have the type of shelter guaranteed by their contracts. Thus the children of our migrants are subjected to crowded, insanitary living conditions, as well as inadequate family income. When sickness and disease result they have less easy access to health and medical services than do the foreign workers. With the end of the war the Office of Labor of the War Food Administration will probably cease to exist. Plans should be made now to improve the conditions of migratory agricultural workers and their families and to insure standards at least as good as those under which foreign agricultural workers have made their contribution to the war effort.

Visits this summer by a member of the staff of the Children's Bureau to farmers' camps for family migrants in one of the wealthiest States, where there were said to be 10,000 family migrants, revealed that practically all the evils described in the Tolan Committee reports<sup>6</sup> still exist. Conditions are as bad or worse in many other States, as revealed by Children's Bureau studies published just before the war. In the areas visited this summer, child labor was prevalent. All the children 10 years of age or over had to go to the fields each day for a 10-hour day to pick beans. Many of the children 7, 8, and 9 years of age did likewise, and even in camps where there were child-care centers children 5 and 6 years old were sometimes made to go to the fields and pick into the family basket.

In most of these camps the migrant families lived in shacks or lean-to's which were crowded and unscreened. Because there was no refrigeration, food was left on the tables with flies swarming about it from one meal's end to the next. In some camps wages were withheld until the end of the season, and food was charged at a camp store. There were no facilities for bathing or washing clothes. Some of these camps were occupied by southern migrant families, and many of their chil-

<sup>5</sup> House Report No. 369—Report of the Select Committee to Investigate the Interstate Migration of Destitute Citizens, House of Representatives, pursuant to H. Res. 63, H. Res. 491, and H. Res. 629 (76th Congress) and H. Res. 16 (77th Congress), Washington, 1941.

<sup>6</sup> White House Conference on Children in a Democracy, Final Report, p. 40.

dren never had an opportunity to learn to read and write, because in the section of the South from which they came the schools had been closed for several months for the peak harvest season there, and they arrived in the North in June when schools were closing for the summer vacation. Even if admitted for tag ends of school terms in either State, they were able to make little progress toward getting an education.

Rural children who belong to racial or other minority groups suffer from social discrimination and disadvantages, in addition to the general deprivations which are characteristic of life in the poorest rural areas and for migratory workers.

The problem of the rural child is first, one of family economics, and second, one of community resources. Under the former heading are measures for extending labor standards and social-security measures to farm workers, and for promoting rural housing and enforcing housing and sanitary regulations, especially with reference to migratory families. The progress that has been made in maintaining good standards in camps for young agricultural workers gives reason to hope that the housing problems of migrant families are not insoluble.

The factors that make it difficult for rural communities to provide good schools also limit their ability to provide good health and social services. Farming areas and small towns usually have a higher ratio of children to adults than cities. In the rural farm population of the Southeastern States there were in 1940<sup>7</sup> nearly twice as many

children 5 to 19 years of age for each 1,000 adults as in the cities of the same region. There is also a great variation in per capita wealth, in favor of the cities. In other words, the rural population has more children to serve, in proportion to adults, than the cities, and far less in per capita wealth.

The only way by which deficiencies in health protection, medical care, and social services can be overcome in this country in the degree necessary for national security, as well as assurance of opportunity for individual development, is through Federal-aid measures for (1) health protection and medical care in maternity and through childhood and adolescence, sufficient to assure access to good medical and hospital care for ill mothers and children, (2) Federal aid for elementary and secondary education; and (3) extension of social insurance, public assistance, and child-welfare services so as to reach with qualified workers and adequate benefits or aid every family or child needing help or guidance in every county or other political subdivision in the United States. In the opinion of the Children's Bureau, Federal aid for vocational education should be related to a general Federal-aid program, whose most important features would be assistance in assuring a reasonable minimum of educational opportunity for every child from nursery school or kindergarten through high school.

Federal aid for health, education, and economic and social welfare should be administered in accordance with the principle of equal opportunity for children of all races and nationalities. Only on such foundations can we carry forward a democratic civilization.

<sup>7</sup> National Education Association: Research Bulletin, Vol. XX., No. 4 (September 1942), p. 131. Federal Aid for Education, A Review of Pertinent Facts.

A limited supply of reprints of this article will be available from the Children's Bureau, Washington 25, D. C.

## Needs of Rural Children Stressed at White House Conference on Rural Education

That every American child, whether living in the country or the city, deserves equal educational opportunities and that action should be taken to provide such opportunities was agreed by the 200 members of the White House Conference on Rural Education, which was held October 3 to 5, 1944, at the White House. The conference was called by three divisions of the National Educational Association; namely, rural service, legislative and Federal relations, and field service, with Charl Ormond Williams, the association's director of field service, as executive chairman.

Inequalities under which rural schools struggle were pointed out by Howard A. Dawson, Director

of Rural Service, National Education Association. "It can be categorically stated," said Dr. Dawson, "that many of the best and most of the poorest schools in the Nation are found in our rural areas. When, however, rural schools as a class are compared with urban schools as a class it is an inescapable conclusion that millions of rural children are seriously handicapped in the educational opportunities available to them." Admitting that some of the trouble is in an acute stage at this time as a result of war conditions, Dr. Dawson reminded the delegates that in times of stress and strain the rural schools are always the first to suffer. "Fundamentally," he said, "the reason is

that there are weaknesses in the structure of rural education that are chronic."

Several million children, said Dr. Dawson, are attending school in mere shacks, using a few worn-out, dirty textbooks, taught by teachers who have not so much as completed a high-school education, and often no more than the eighth grade, without the aid of modern instructional materials and without the assistance of competent and sympathetic supervision. In one State there are nearly 1,500 schools without a building; the classes are carried on in abandoned tenant houses, in country churches, and under brush arbors.

Dr. Dawson pointed out that the rural schools have suffered most from the wartime loss of teachers. City school systems, he said, have managed to maintain their staffs by recruiting the best teachers from rural areas, so that the country schools, which have never had a sufficient number of well-trained teachers, are bearing the brunt of the current crisis.

Thus, he said, we find educational opportunity being drastically curtailed for the children who live on farms or in towns of less than 2,500 population. This is happening at a time when the expansion of educational facilities is urgently needed so that young people may secure the foundations of a broad education that will prepare them to understand and defend democracy, to work efficiently in war industry, to increase food production, to fight through to victory, to furnish leadership and cooperation in the reconstruction period, and to succeed in the highly competitive labor market of the post-war years.

Dr. Dawson went on to say that nearly all the troubles in rural education can be allayed if proper attention is given to the following problems: (1) The character and scope of education in rural areas, (2) the equalization of educational opportunities, especially for children of minority racial groups, children in areas of low economic resources, and children who are physically handicapped, (3) the teaching personnel, (4) instructional materials, educational equipment, and the school plant, (5) the organization of local units of school administration and attendance, (6) financing of rural schools.

Katharine F. Lenroot, Chief of the Children's Bureau, told the conference that the majority of the children of the Nation live in rural areas, and they have at their disposal far less than a majority of the resources of the Nation for health, education, and home life. Miss Lenroot's speech is given in full in this issue of *THE CHILD*. (See p. 66.)

Summarizing the findings of the conference, Ralph B. Jones, Arkansas State Commissioner of Education, said that the conference had found

there should be a complete program of educational opportunities to supply the needs of every rural child, beginning with kindergarten and extending through at least the twelfth school year. The salaries of rural teachers, he said, must be made commensurate with income requirements of persons of the cultural and social status that educated teachers should be expected to maintain. In most States there should be a fundamental reorganization of local administrative units for schools to make them sufficiently large to afford educational opportunities through high school and to make available the administrative and specialized services required for a satisfactory educational program. Much of the leadership for rural education should come from State departments of education. The rural services of the United States Office of Education should be greatly enlarged. An extensive program of rehousing rural schools is needed.

Financial support for adequate educational opportunities for rural children and youth, the summary stated, should come primarily from State funds, apportioned to school units in such ways as to guarantee, when supplemented by local taxes, an acceptable-standards school available to every child. Federal aid to the States to assist them in the financing of schools is necessary if a fair degree of educational opportunity is to be made available throughout the Nation. Every State should enact and enforce compulsory school-attendance laws which will guarantee the removal of all barriers to the regular school attendance of all children, including those from the most isolated farms, those whose parents follow the crops, and those who must labor to supplement the family income.

An adequate educational program, adapted to the problems of incalculable complexity which will face our people upon cessation of hostilities, can be realized, continued Mr. Jones, through the vision and courage of educational leaders. "Such a program of education," he said, "clearly points out at least two major objectives: First, every youth of the Nation graduating from high school; second, every high-school graduate prepared for the next step he contemplates taking. . . . This will require significant increases in school financial support. The responsibility for such support must rest alike on the local community, the State, and the Nation. There must be universal acceptance of the irrefutable principle of democratic education that the wealth of the land, wherever it is, should support the education of the youth of the land, wherever they live."

President Roosevelt told the conference that the chief problem of rural education is the problem of dollars and cents and that in many cases the problem cannot be solved by increasing the local

taxes, because the taxable values are not there. The gap between educational standards in the richer communities and those in the poorer communities, he said, is far greater today than it was a hundred years ago, and we must find the means of closing that gap by raising the standards in the poorer communities.

I believe, Mr. Roosevelt went on to say, that the Federal Government should render financial aid where it is needed, and only where it is needed—in communities where farming does not pay, where land values have depreciated through erosion or through flood or drought, where industries have moved away, where transport facilities are inadequate, or where electricity is unavailable for power and light.

Such Government financial aid, the President said, should never involve Government interference with State and local administration and control. It must purely and simply provide the guarantee that this country is great enough to give to all its children the right to a free education.

Closely related to this whole problem, he continued, is the question of the health of our young people. Here again we cannot boast of our part in this war without a feeling of guilt—for about 40 percent of all men who were examined had to be

rejected for military service for physical or mental reasons. We cannot be satisfied with the state of this Nation if a large percentage of our children are not being given the opportunity to achieve good education and good health. I believe that our educators—those who are close to our children—should consider these two problems together.

A "charter for rural education" was drawn up, stating that this country can develop the finest rural civilization the world has yet seen, in the new era following World War II. This charter goes on to say that we must have a broad and powerful education in every rural community—an education which (1) insures all ages of rural Americans their fair share of education, (2) produces vigorous, wholesome, balanced, and steadily growing personalities, (3) strives for a community that sustains and nourishes democratic life, (4) demands dynamic and highly skilled professional leaders who can deal effectively with the problems of rural communities, (5) provides adequate rural school buildings and grounds, creates satisfactory administrative and attendance units, (6) provides an equitable plan of financing rural education, and (7) unites all the forces of the community in a coordinated effort.

## BOOK NOTES

**CHILDREN AND FOOD IN DAY-CARE CENTERS.** Greater New York Southeastern District Home Economics Association, 1944. Available from Room 302, Community Service Society, 105 East Twenty-second Street, New York. 54 pp. 40 cents.

This pamphlet, prepared at the suggestion of the New York State War Council's Committee on Child Care, Development, and Protection, recognizes that day-care centers have both a responsibility and an opportunity for safeguarding and improving the health of children under their care and that good food, wisely chosen and properly prepared and served, is a basic factor in the program of such centers. Essential facts about the nutritional needs of children and the types and quantities of food that they should have are presented in simple, nontechnical language. Workers in child-care centers who have not had special training in home economics will find in this pamphlet the solution of many of their problems, as well as suggestions for improvement of their programs.

**THE ROAD TO GOOD NUTRITION,** by Lydia J. Roberts in collaboration with members of the Children's Bureau staff. Bureau Publication 270, Washington, 1944. 58 pp. Single copies free.

This bulletin, first published in 1942, has been revised in the light of recent advances in scientific knowledge. It is intended to enable persons responsible for the health of children to become better acquainted with the child's nutritional needs at various stages of life and with methods of dealing with such needs.

**INFANTS WITHOUT FAMILIES;** the case for and against residential nurseries. By Anna Freud and Dorothy Burlingham. International University Press, New York. 1944. 128 pp. \$2.

Like "War and Children," by the same authors, this book reports observations among children who have been placed in residential nurseries because their family life has been broken up temporarily or permanently by war conditions.

Children's workers have noted many failures in healthy personality development among children who grow up in institutions. With regard to this observation the authors believe that "it remains a question of interest how far failures of the kind described are inherent in the nature of such institutions as distinct from family life, and how far they could be obviated if the former were ready and able to change their methods."

Conclusions by the authors in stating the case for and against residential nurseries, are: "The institutional child in the first 2 years has advantages in all those spheres of his life which are independent of the emotional side of his nature; he is at a disadvantage wherever the emotional tie to the mother or to the family is the main-spring of development." There are realms in the infant's life, the authors say, in which it is important for residential nurseries to recognize their limitations, as in emotional life, character-development; they will then face, and more effectively fight, the consequences of such limitations."

Professional workers concerned with the care of young children will find careful observations, recordings, and interpretation of the behavior of these infants.

## Young Workers in the Wartime Labor Market

NOTE.—Based on a report prepared by Golda G. Stander, Industrial Division, and Edith S. Gray, Division of Statistical Research, U. S. Children's Bureau, and mimeographed under the title "Estimated Numbers of Full-time and Part-time Workers 14 Through 19 Years of Age, April 1944."

Three million workers under 18 years of age are enough to constitute a sizable problem, both to persons interested in the education, welfare, and opportunities of the young workers as individuals and to those interested in the adjustment of the labor market during the reconversion period.

For many years before the war, child employment had been diminishing as a result of educational and legislative measures and technological improvement in industry—a trend which was speeded up by widespread unemployment during the depression years. In April 1940 the decennial census listed 872,314 young workers 14 through 17 years of age in the United States, of whom 209,347 were in the 14- and 15-year age group. The wartime acceleration of industry and the drafting of millions of trained workmen into the armed forces obliged employers to find new sources of labor, and teen-age boys and girls by the thousand seized the chance to get a job. As a result, by April 1944 the number of young workers under 18 years of age exceeded 2,900,000, according to census estimates. Of these, 2,050,000 were 16 or 17 years of age and 850,000 were 14 or 15; for child workers under 14 no official count exists.

The total runs much higher in the summer when farm work is at its height. The July estimate of young workers 14 through 17 was close to 5,000,000 both in 1943 and 1944.

Before much progress can be made in dealing constructively with the child-labor and youth-employment problems in relation to the post-war labor market and social conditions, some basic information is needed as to the age, sex, school status, hours of work, and distribution by industry of the boys and girls under 18 at work during the war period. Ever since the 1940 census the Bureau of the Census has been conducting sample surveys on a monthly basis to gather data on the labor supply, employment, and related subjects. In order to obtain additional information on young workers it included some supplementary questions in the April 1944 survey.

From the answers to these questions the following picture emerges: About half the 2,900,000 young workers 14 through 17 years of age have left school and can be considered full-time workers, as the majority worked more than 40 hours a

week; about the same number were still in school and can be considered part-time workers. In the 14- and 15-year group the students working part time outnumber the full-time workers, 7 to 3. Among the 16- and 17-year olds, full-time workers outnumber part-time workers in the ratio of 3 to 2.

### How the Sampling Was Done

The sample on which the census estimates are based consists of 30,000 scientifically selected households in 68 sample areas. Each area contains one or more counties (123 counties in all). The sample areas are located in 42 States and the District of Columbia. The Bureau of the Census has tried to make the sample survey representative of the population of the United States in all its characteristics, and considers that the present sample, in use since November 1943, fulfills this requirement. The information on each of the 30,000 households was obtained through personal interview by a census enumerator.

The numbers shown in these tables are obtained by multiplying each item in the sample survey by a weighted figure representing the relationship of that item to the population of the United States as a whole, a process known as "blowing up" the sample. The data thus obtained are considered reliable for figures of 100,000 or over, rounded to the nearest 50,000.

### Questions on School Attendance and Employment

The civilian population 14 through 17 years of age was estimated at 9,200,000 in April 1944. Excluded from this estimate are members of the armed forces (which explains the excess of girls over boys) and inmates of institutions (prisons, mental hospitals, and so forth).

When the April 1944 census sampling was taken, workers in this age group (and also those 18 and 19 years of age) in addition to the usual questions, which include employment status, were asked whether they attended school in the census week and, if so, for how many hours. Day school and night school were reported separately, but as a matter of fact the number of children under 18 who attended night school proved to be negligible. If a school holiday occurred in the census week (it was the week before Easter) information on school attendance was obtained for the preceding week.

The replies indicate that in the population of the United States as a whole there were 2,900,000 boys and girls 14 through 17 (nearly one-third

of the civilian population in this age group) in the labor force, and that all but about 100,000 of these were actually at work in the week when the survey was made (table 1).

Of the 6,300,000 minors 14 through 17 years of age who were not in the labor force, the great majority (5,800,000) were attending school. There remained half a million children who were neither in the labor force nor in school. This group, four-

and 17-year-old workers increased three times—from 662,967 to 1,950,000.

#### Boys in Labor Force Outnumber Girls

There are twice as many boys as there are girls among the young workers 14 through 17. In the 14- and 15-year-old group boys outnumber girls by three to one. Even in the 16- and 17-year-old

TABLE 1.—*Estimated employment and school attendance of boys and girls 14 through 17 years of age, April 1944*

NOTE: Figures have been rounded to the nearest 50,000

Employment and school attendance	14 through 17 years			14 and 15 years			16 and 17 years		
	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls
Total civilian population <sup>1</sup> ....	9,200,000	4,550,000	4,650,000	4,700,000	2,400,000	2,300,000	4,500,000	2,150,000	2,350,000
In labor force.....	2,900,000	1,950,000	950,000	850,000	650,000	200,000	2,050,000	1,300,000	750,000
At work.....	2,800,000	1,900,000	900,000	850,000	650,000	200,000	1,950,000	1,250,000	700,000
Attending school.....	1,400,000	1,000,000	400,000	600,000	450,000	150,000	800,000	550,000	250,000
Not attending school.....	1,350,000	900,000	450,000	250,000	200,000	(2)	1,100,000	700,000	400,000
Attendance not reported.....	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Not at work <sup>2</sup> .....	100,000	(2)	(2)	.....	.....	.....	100,000	(2)	(2)
Not in labor force.....	6,300,000	2,600,000	3,700,000	3,850,000	1,750,000	2,100,000	2,450,000	850,000	1,600,000
Because attending school.....	5,800,000	2,500,000	3,300,000	3,650,000	1,700,000	1,950,000	2,150,000	800,000	1,350,000
For other reasons.....	500,000	100,000	400,000	200,000	(2)	150,000	300,000	(2)	250,000

<sup>1</sup> Excludes persons in armed forces or in institutions.

<sup>2</sup> Estimates less than 100,000 not shown.

<sup>3</sup> Includes those actively seeking work and those with jobs but not working during census week.

fifths of whom were girls, included, among others, those who were doing housework at home, and those who were not able to work or attend school.

#### Workers Under 16 Show Largest Increase

For a long time the trend in the United States has been toward a basic 16-year minimum age for employment. This is shown in the more or less complete acceptance of this standard in the child-labor laws of 15 States and in the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938. Moreover, the percentage of children enrolled in high school steadily increased up to 1940. During the war period this trend was reversed. The number of pupils enrolled in high school fell 14 percent, from 7,244,312 in 1940-41 to 6,216,119 in 1943-44, according to estimates of the United States Office of Education. The number of 14- and 15-year-old workers multiplied four times between April 1940 and April 1944—from 209,347 to an estimated 850,000; and the number of 16-

group, where the effect of enlistment in the armed forces shows up in the excess of girls over boys in the civilian population, boy workers outnumber girl workers by nearly two to one. The proportion of girls is somewhat higher among the full-time workers than among the part-time workers.

#### Half of Young Workers Attend School

The total number of boys and girls 14 through 17 years of age who were attending school in April 1944 was estimated at 7,200,000—78 percent of the civilian population in that age group.<sup>1</sup> One-fifth of all the boys and girls 14 through 17 years of age who attend school also hold down jobs (table 2). The percentage of job holders is lowest for girls of 14 and 15 (7 percent) and highest for boys of 16 and 17 (41 percent). Nearly all

<sup>1</sup> This includes 1,400,000 boys and girls reported to be working and attending school (whether high school, elementary, trade, or other) and 5,800,000 reported not to be in the labor force because they were attending school. There may have been a few children not in the labor force for other reasons who were attending school and who are not included in this figure.

TABLE 2.—*Proportion of boys and girls 14 through 17 years of age attending school who were at work, April 1944*

NOTE.—Figures have been rounded to the nearest 50,000.

Age and sex	Total attending school <sup>1</sup>	At work and attending school	Percent <sup>2</sup>
14 through 17 years.....	7,200,000	1,400,000	20
Boys.....	3,500,000	1,000,000	29
Girls.....	3,700,000	400,000	11
14 and 15 years.....	4,250,000	600,000	14
Boys.....	2,150,000	450,000	21
Girls.....	2,100,000	150,000	7
16 and 17 years.....	2,950,000	800,000	27
Boys.....	1,350,000	550,000	41
Girls.....	1,600,000	250,000	16

<sup>1</sup> Includes those not in the labor force who gave school attendance as the reason for not being in the labor force.

<sup>2</sup> Percentages computed on unrounded figures.

the children who are not in the labor force attend school (92 percent), but only half of the children who are in the labor force go to school, although some of the others doubtless have completed high school. (Information coming to the Children's Bureau from scattered sources indicates that about 16 percent of 271,091 minors 16 or 17 years of age for whom employment certificates were issued in 1942 had completed the twelfth grade, but that less than 1 percent of 10,673 minors 14 or 15 years of age had done so.)

#### Working Hours Exceed Standards Recommended

On the basis that too long hours are detrimental to the health and welfare of young people, most of the States have set maximum weekly hours for employment ranging generally from 40 to 48 hours for children under 16. About one-third of the States have also regulated the hours of work for 16- and 17-year olds to the extent of establishing a maximum work week of 48 hours or less, at least for employment in factories and stores.

The Federal law, the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, sets a basic minimum age of 16 for employment in or about establishments producing goods for shipment in interstate or foreign commerce; children under 16 may be employed in nonmanufacturing and nonmining occupations under conditions not detrimental to their health or well-being and during periods that do not interfere with their schooling. Employment in such occupations is limited by regulations issued by the Chief of the Children's Bureau to 40 hours a week when schools are not in session and to 3 hours a day and 18 hours a week when schools are in session. There is no Federal law limiting

hours of work for 16- and 17-year-olds in general other than the requirement for wages at time and a half for hours in excess of 40 a week under the Fair Labor Standards Act; under the Walsh-Healey Act the hours of work are regulated for girls 16 and 17 in establishments working on Government contracts in excess of \$10,000.

The standards recommended for all industries by Federal agencies concerned with the problem—War Manpower Commission, United States Office of Education, and Children's Bureau—are similar to those of the Fair Labor Standards Act, but in addition these Federal agencies have recommended a maximum of 48 hours weekly for 16- and 17-year-old students when schools are not in session and of 4 hours a day and 28 hours a week when schools are in session.

Of the workers not attending school, almost three-fifths (57 percent) of the 14- and 15-year-old group work more than 40 hours a week, or longer than the maximum recommended for children of these ages, according to the sample survey. In fact, more than one-third (36 percent) work more than 48 hours a week. In general boys of these ages work longer hours than girls.

Long hours of work were also reported for many of the 16- and 17-year-olds not attending school with about one-fourth working over 48 hours, or longer than the maximum recommended for boys and girls of these ages. More than one-third of the boys work over 48 hours, compared with less than one-tenth of the girls.

The median work week is 47 hours for both age groups. Since 18- and 19-year-old workers, who were also asked the supplementary questions in the April survey, have a median work week of exactly the same length, it would seem that children employed full time, even down to the 14- and 15-year-olds, taking the country as a whole, tend to work the prevailing hours regardless of the fact that in some States legal weekly limits of less than 48 hours apply to children under 16 or under 18.

Young workers attending school were questioned as to combined hours of school and work. Slightly less than three-fifths had no school holiday in the census week (the week before Easter) and from their replies it appears that for three-fourths of the working students school and job together account for a week of more than 40 hours; for two-fifths, more than 48 hours, and for one-sixth, more than 56 hours.

Forty percent of the 14- and 15-year olds and 49 percent of the 16- and 17-year olds exceeded 48 hours a week of work and school combined. This would be considered a heavy load for an adult worker. These hours include typically a school program of 25 to 30 hours a week. They

do not include the time needed for home study or the time required for traveling from home to school to job and home again. Median hours of combined school and work are longer for the older students than for the younger (48 a week compared with 46). In the 16- and 17-year-old group hours for boys were especially long, half of them having a combined week of 50 hours or more, compared with 44 hours for the girls of these ages.

#### Farm Boys Have Highest Rate of Employment

Because of the high rate of employment among the boys, the proportion of young workers in the civilian population is higher for farm youth<sup>2</sup> than for nonfarm, as is shown in table 3. Moreover, 60 percent of the workers living on farms were working full-time, compared with 45 percent among

employment is the distribution of young workers by industry,<sup>3</sup> especially the differences between the workers under 16 and those over 16.

Nearly nine-tenths of the workers 14 through 17 years of age, according to the census estimate, are concentrated in four main industry groups: Agriculture, wholesale and retail trade, manufacturing, and domestic and personal services (see table 4).

A preponderance of 14- and 15-year-old workers is shown in agriculture (40 percent), even for April when the survey was made, with trade ranking second (30 percent), and domestic and personal service and manufacturing tied for third place (12 percent each). Of those 16 and 17, on the other hand, the largest numbers are in manufacturing and trade (30 per cent each), with agriculture ranking third (25 percent).

More than half the girl workers attending school

TABLE 3.—Employment and school attendance of farm and nonfarm youth 14 through 17 years of age, April 1944

NOTE: Figures have been rounded to the nearest 50,000

Employment and school attendance	Farm youth			Nonfarm youth		
	14 through 17 years	14 and 15 years	16 and 17 years	14 through 17 years	14 and 15 years	16 and 17 years
Total civilian population <sup>1</sup> .....	2,150,000	1,100,000	1,050,000	7,000,000	3,500,000	3,500,000
At work.....	850,000	350,000	500,000	2,000,000	500,000	1,500,000
Attending school.....	350,000	200,000	150,000	1,100,000	400,000	700,000
Not attending school.....	500,000	150,000	350,000	900,000	100,000	800,000
Not at work.....	1,300,000	750,000	550,000	5,000,000	3,000,000	2,000,000

<sup>1</sup> Excludes persons in the armed services or in institutions.

those not living on farms. Half of the 16- and 17-year-old farm boys were out of school and working in April, and of those attending school, more than half (52 percent) were also working. Of the nonfarm boys in this age group, about one-fourth were out of school and working, and about one-fourth of those in school had jobs. In the 14- and 15-year-old group, also, the proportion of boys who were out of school and working was much higher for farm than for nonfarm residents. For the girls, on the other hand, the percentage of employment was somewhat higher for nonfarm than for farm residents, at least in the older group.

#### Four Main Industry Groups Employ Nine-tenths of Young Workers

An important factor in relation to child labor safeguards and post-war adjustments in youth

<sup>2</sup> Farm youth are those actually residing on farms.

are in trade, compared with one-third of the boys. A larger proportion of girl than of boy students are employed in domestic and personal service, whereas the boy students are found in higher proportion in manufacturing (including newspaper distribution for publishing companies) and in agriculture.

Of the workers not attending school, nearly one-third (32 percent) are found in agriculture and about the same number in manufacturing. Only one-sixth of this group (16 percent) are found in wholesale and retail trade and even fewer (8 percent) in domestic and personal service. Of the 16- and 17-year-old minors who constitute more than four-fifths of the young workers not attending school, by far the largest proportion (37 percent) are found in manufacturing in-

<sup>3</sup> The sample survey follows the industry classification as established by the Bureau of the Census. Thus, "manufacturing" includes, for example, the printing industry. Unquestionably therefore, many of the young workers in "manufacturing," especially in the group of 14- and 15-year-old boys, are newsboys.

dustries; 26 percent are in agriculture, 16 percent in wholesale and retail trade, and a fairly substantial percentage (13 percent) are scattered in "other" industries (see footnote 1 to table 4). For the boys in this group agriculture and manufacturing rank first and second, respectively; for the girls, manufacturing ranks first and trade second. Comparatively few of the girls in this group are employed in agriculture.

TABLE 4.—*Distribution of young workers 14 through 17 years by industry, April 1944*

NOTE: Figures have been rounded to the nearest 50,000

Industry	14 through 17 years	14 and 15 years	16 and 17 years
Total.....	2,800,000	850,000	1,950,000
Agriculture.....	800,000	350,000	450,000
Wholesale and retail trade.....	800,000	250,000	550,000
Manufacturing.....	650,000	100,000	550,000
Domestic and personal service.....	250,000	100,000	150,000
Other <sup>1</sup> .....	300,000	(2)	250,000

<sup>1</sup> Includes the following industrial classifications in which appreciable numbers of young workers 14 through 17 were found to be employed: Forestry and fishing; mining; construction; transportation, commerce, and public utilities; finance, insurance, and real estate; automobile storage, rental, and repair; other business and repair service; amusement and recreation; professional service; and Government.

<sup>2</sup> Estimate less than 100,000 not shown.

The number of young workers in agriculture increases sharply in the summer; the census estimate for July 1944 shows 1,550,000 young workers 14 through 17 in agriculture—nearly twice the April figure.

Nine out of every 10 minors employed in agriculture in April, when the survey was made, were living on farms; this holds true for both out-of-school workers and student workers. But of those who were attending school more than four-fifths, and of those who were out of school only three-fifths, were unpaid family workers.

The comparatively large number of young workers, boys and girls both, who are employed in manufacturing fits in with the findings of the Children's Bureau, based on the number of employment certificates issued in States and cities reporting to the Bureau, that the number of minors 14 through 17 years of age entering manufacturing industries has increased enormously during the war period.

#### What Will Happen to Young Workers When the Labor Market Contracts?

The increase in the Nation's labor force during the 4 years ended April 1944 exceeded normal expectations by 6,700,000, according to the Bureau

A limited supply of reprints of this article will be available from the Children's Bureau, Washington 25, D. C.

of Labor Statistics.<sup>4</sup> Of this excess, some 1,730,000 workers were drawn from the age group 14 through 17 years—1,090,000 boys and 640,000 girls. Normally, a large proportion of these young people would be devoting their full time to schooling. Many of them, of course, have not given up school altogether, but are continuing to attend school while working part time.

Post-war contractions in employment and in the armed forces are expected to result in a surplus of 5,000,000 to 6,000,000 workers by 1947, if civilian jobs are no more plentiful than they were in 1941, the Bureau of Labor Statistics estimates. By industry group, the Bureau of Labor Statistics foresees expansion in construction, trade, manufacturing for civilian use, domestic service, and self-employment; reductions in mining, transportation, and public utilities.

Three measures through which part of the expected contraction can be accomplished with a minimum of hardship are the voluntary withdrawal of housewives from the labor market, the retirement of overage workers who remained in the labor force because of the emergency, and the return to school of employed minors, especially those under 18, on a full-time basis.

The out-of-school workers who are 16 or 17 years of age will be the minors of whom fewest will voluntarily leave the labor market, unless encouraged to resume some educational activity. It should be easier to get the 14- and 15-year olds back to school, particularly as most States require them to attend school unless they are working. However, this is a smaller group and includes a high proportion of farm children employed in agriculture.

About half of the entire group of young workers attend school, although the proportion of student workers varies according to industry, as has been seen. In the student group, which still has one foot in school, are many whose motives for working are partly patriotic, and who can readily resume their full-time student status. Doubtless, many student workers, especially in the younger group, intend to continue their education and others would be glad of the chance to do so if the loss of wages or unemployment compensation could be offset in some way.

In addition, the intake of children under 16 as full-time workers could be shut off by raising the minimum age for employment during school hours to 16 years in States with a lower age limit, and by strengthening the administration of existing laws. This would restrict the 14- and 15-year-old boys and girls to part-time and vacation jobs and encourage them to complete their schooling.

<sup>4</sup> Sources of Wartime Labor Supply in the United States. *Monthly Labor Review*, Vol. 59, No. 2 (August 1944), pp. 264-278.

## State Child-Labor Legislation in the Third Year of the War

During 1944, a year in which only eight State legislatures met in regular session, legislation affecting the employment of minors was passed in five States. To some extent the trend toward relaxation of child-labor standards shown by the laws enacted in the previous year was continued, in that a few of the 1944 enactments lower or weaken the standards or extend for another year legislation relaxing such standards. Other laws, however, show a more hopeful trend. This is true particularly in the field of compulsory school attendance and indicates recognition of the need for widening school opportunities for children even in wartime.

The States in which the legislature met in regular session during the legislative year 1944 were Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, New Jersey, New York, Rhode Island, South Carolina, and Virginia. In a number of other States the legislature met in special session.

Legislation relating specifically to child labor or to compulsory school attendance was enacted in Kentucky, Louisiana, New York, and Virginia, and also in Michigan, whose legislature met in special session.

It is significant that with children in increasing numbers leaving school for work, three States (Louisiana, Virginia, and Michigan) strengthened their compulsory school-attendance requirements. As a result of the improvement in legislation for compulsory school attendance in Louisiana and Virginia, there are now only two States (Georgia and North Carolina) that do not have an upper age for compulsory school attendance of at least 16 years, State-wide in application. It must be borne in mind, however, that the full value of a 16-year school-attendance standard cannot be realized as long as the majority of the State child-labor laws have a lower minimum age than 16 for employment during school hours, and exemption from school attendance is permitted for 14- and 15-year-olds going to work.

Louisiana and Virginia raised the upper age for compulsory school attendance from 15 years to 16, but provided for the exemption of limited classes of children.

The 1944 Louisiana act replaces two separate compulsory school-attendance laws, of which one applied to all parishes except the Parish of Orleans and required attendance to 15 years and the other applied only to the Parish of Orleans, and required attendance to 16. The new act eliminates a few exemptions that were in the two former acts—exemptions that permitted certain children within the compulsory school-attendance ages to leave

school. Children mentally or physically incapacitated, those living beyond a specified distance from any school of suitable grade, and those temporarily excused from attendance under rules promulgated by the State Board of Education are the only ones exempted from the requirements of the new act.

The Louisiana act also authorizes establishment of an administrative framework that provides for cooperation between State and local school authorities, looking to effective enforcement of the act. Parish school boards are authorized to enforce the act in cooperation with other State and parish agencies. The State Superintendent of Education is authorized to designate a member of the State Department of Education to serve as State Supervisor of Attendance, whose primary responsibility will be the general administration of the act. This State supervisor is given general supervision over the visiting teachers. Each parish school board is authorized to employ at least one full-time visiting teacher to act as attendance officer, such officer to be appointed from a list certified by the State Board of Education. The visiting teachers, whose duties are specified in the act, are to cooperate with the State Departments of Public Welfare, Labor, Health and other State agencies; to make monthly and annual reports to parish superintendents and the State Supervisor of Attendance on attendance and on other problems of adjustment between children and schools. These visiting teachers are to have all the powers and duties formerly vested in attendance or truant officers. They are also directed to file proceedings in court when necessary to enforce the provisions of the act, and to report habitual truants to the juvenile court as delinquent children.

In addition the Louisiana act requires attendance for 180 days or the full session. Formerly attendance was required for 140 days in parishes other than the Parish of Orleans and for the entire session in the Parish of Orleans.

Under the new Virginia act, raising from 15 to 16 the upper age for required school attendance, exemption is permitted only for children physically or mentally incapacitated or children living more than a certain distance from school or from a place at which free transportation is available to school. The act eliminated an exemption which had permitted Virginia children who completed the elementary school course to be excused from school attendance to go to work. However, the child-labor law, which sets a basic 14-year minimum age for employment, was not amended.

Michigan changed its beginning age for com-

pulsory school attendance from 7 to 6 years, thus requiring attendance of children between the ages of 6 and 16 unless they are exempted. It further strengthened its school-attendance requirements by providing that children under 16 who live in a district that does not have a high school and who complete the eighth grade (formerly exempted from attendance), must attend high school if transportation is furnished and tuition paid by the district or State to a school outside their district.

In Kentucky, Louisiana, and New York some legislative lowering of standards occurred, but in Louisiana and New York a strengthening of administrative procedures accompanied the relaxations.

Kentucky passed a wartime measure, applicable to retail stores employing 10 persons or less, which permits children under 16 years of age to work on Saturdays for 10 hours a day (instead of 8) and until 9 p. m. (instead of 6 p. m.).

Louisiana amended its 1942 act providing for dispensations by the State commissioner of labor from limitations of labor laws for persons 18 years of age or over so as to permit dispensations warranted by the war emergency to be granted for persons 16 years or over. It also amended its child-labor law so as to except from the 18-year minimum-age requirement established for employment in certain hazardous occupations apprentices who are employed in accordance with the State law providing for voluntary apprenticeship under State-approved agreements.

In addition, for the duration of the war and 90 days thereafter, Louisiana lowered from 14 to 12 the minimum age at which boys may deliver and collect for magazines or periodicals from house to house over fixed routes in residential areas, during the same hours and under the conditions established by the act for boys between 14 and 16 years of age. Boys between 12 and 14 so engaged or employed at the expiration date of the amendment are to be permitted to continue in such work. At the same time that it lowered the minimum age for such street-trades work during the war period, this State strengthened its administrative procedures for issuing street-trades permits. The previous law required presentation of a school record before such a permit was

granted; it permitted, however, the waiving of this requirement in case of summer-vacation work. The amended law provides that the waiver by the principal of the school shall be subject to review by the parish superintendent of schools. It also gives the commissioner of labor authority to prescribe any regulatory measures necessary for the cancellation of unused or expired permits.

New York extended until July 1, 1945, its emergency legislation under which releases from school were permitted up to 30 days during the school year for children 14 or over to do farm work and for children 16 or over to work in canneries and greenhouses. On the other hand, New York improved its employment-certificate requirements for farm work. Until July 1, 1945, minors of 14 and 15 must obtain farm-work permits for employment in farm service at any time of the year, including any period during which the minors are released from school for such work. Formerly a permit was not required by law for such work during release from school. Such farm-work permits are valid under the law only if signed by the employer. By another act, New York exempted from the requirement for employment certificates the work of children 14 years of age or over as caddies. This exemption is not confined to the war period.

In evaluating the legislative trends of 1944, as they relate to the employment of minors, it would appear that the few backward steps are balanced by advances in the same or other States. The improvements made in school-attendance legislation are of special importance as pointing the way to concerted post-war drives for remedying weaknesses in State child-labor and school-attendance legislation. This does not mean necessarily that wartime relaxations in standards have passed their peak. Few legislatures were in regular session during 1944. Moreover, a few of the States in which the legislature was in regular session this year had already granted some relaxation of child-labor standards, or authority to relax them, at least for minors 16 or over. If the war demands for labor continue at the present level into the next legislative year when practically all States have legislative sessions, new pressures will undoubtedly develop.

## National Agency for Dealing With Juvenile Delinquency in Argentina

Argentina was the first of the American republics to follow the example of the United States in enacting a law (in 1919) for the appointment of special judges to hear cases of delinquent and morally neglected persons under 18. The work concerning the institutions for these children and related problems was entrusted by the Government to the Patronato Nacional de Menores (Board for the Protection of Minors), which was created in 1931. The activities of the Patronato are described in its latest report, *Memoria General del Patronato Nacional de Menores, Infancia y Juventud*, No. 25-26, 1943.

The Patronato, which is in the Ministry of Justice and Public Instruction, receives annual appropriations from the Government for the maintenance of public institutions for delinquent, neglected, and dependent children. The Patronato also distributes Government aid to private institutions of this kind, and supervises the work of both public and private institutions. Another of the functions is to propose legislation relating to the subjects of its work.

The President of the Patronato has been for many years Dr. Carlos de Arenaza, author of numerous works on the treatment of juvenile delinquency. Dr. de Arenaza is also co-author of the present report.

The Patronato maintains nine public institutions with a total population of 1,600 children. To these institutions are committed not only delinquent or morally neglected children brought before the court, but also, at the request of their parents, children presenting behavior problems and those whom their parents are unable to support. Children with communicable diseases or serious physical or mental defects are barred from the institutions.

Six of these nine institutions are for boys. One of them, the Colonia Hogar "Ricardo Gutiérrez," is considered, because of its high standards, one of the best in the American republics. Occupying extensive grounds in a rural district in the province of Buenos Aires, this institution has a population of 600 boys living in cottages, each with accommodations for 30 and managed by a married couple.

The personality of each child is studied upon admission, and a plan of treatment is determined. A general education is given in the institution's

primary and intermediate schools. Extensive facilities are maintained for instruction in trades and agriculture. Many of the new buildings on the institution's well-kept grounds have been built by the boys, and many articles of clothing and other necessities have also been made by them. Medical and dental care and various facilities for recreation are provided.

The staff is housed in separate buildings on the grounds.

In the other institutions for boys an elementary education and industrial and agricultural training are also provided, but on a smaller scale than in the Colonia Hogar "Ricardo Gutiérrez."

Of the three institutions for girls one, situated in the city of Buenos Aires, serves as a receiving home to which all the girls committed to the care of the Patronato Nacional de Menores are sent for study and classification. In the two other institutions for girls, one of which is of the cottage type, elementary education and instruction in trades considered suitable for girls are provided.

It is also the duty of the Patronato to arrange for the placing in private institutions of those children who cannot be accommodated in public institutions and to pay for their care.

Branch offices are maintained by the Patronato in several parts of the country. The report points out that their work is handicapped by insufficient funds; as a result of this the institutions in those districts are poorly equipped.

Other phases of the Patronato's work that are described in the present report include courses of lectures for improving the qualifications of the employees of the institutions supervised by the Patronato, publication of a periodical, *Infancia y Juventud*, and organization of two National Conferences on Neglected and Delinquent Children, which were held in 1933 and 1942.

In conclusion the author criticizes the policy of removing children from their homes because of poverty and placing them in institutions. He advises his country to follow the example of the United States, where increasingly large sums of money are spent in aiding the child in his own home, and refers to the publications of the Children's Bureau and the recommendations of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection.

A. K. S.

## NOTES

With the approval of the members of the Children's Bureau Commission on Children in Wartime, who voted on the questions submitted by the chairman August 10, the Chief of the Children's Bureau has changed the name of the Commission to the National Commission on Children in Wartime.

*Prevención Social*, monthly organ of the Departamento de Prevención Social de la Secretaría de Gobernación de Mexico has recently begun publication in Mexico City. The purpose of the magazine is to inform the public about the work of the Departamento de Prevención Social, a Government Bureau which administers laws on juvenile and adult delinquency and deals with other phases of the problem. The first five numbers contain articles on juvenile delinquency and related problems; also a report on the work of the juvenile court in the Federal District of Mexico, which was presented to the First National Congress on Social Welfare of Mexico, 1943.

The Australian Association for Preschool Child Development has adopted resolutions with regard to post-war plans for children. Among these are: That an attempt be made by the child-welfare committee of the League of Nations to influence the formation of peace treaties so that provision can be made for the rehabilitation of blighted child lives; that plans be made for contacting the governments and peoples of all countries when hostilities cease, so that, under the protection of the peace treaties, the right attitudes toward children can be fostered; that the child-welfare committee of the League of Nations concern itself with all aspects of preschool child welfare, including education for peace, prevention of all abuses of the child mind, preservation in time of famine, and hygiene; also that this committee be asked to urge all member states to make provision for giving effect to the terms of the Declaration of Geneva.

ED. NOTE.—The League of Nations Committee mentioned in the above paragraph is probably the Advisory Committee on Social Questions.

## CONFERENCE CALENDAR

Nov. 12-18. Children's Book Week. Celebrates the two-hundredth anniversary of the publication of the first book for children. It is being observed also in England, Brazil, The U.S.S.R., Nicaragua, Mexico, and Bombay, India. Permanent headquarters: 62 West Forty-fifth Street, New York 19.

Dec. 2-3. American Sociological Society. Chicago. Chairman: Dr. Thomas D. Eliot, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.

Dec. 27-29. American Statistical Association. Annual meeting, Washington. Office of the Secretary, 1603 K Street NW, Washington.

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## UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

FRANCES PERKINS, SECRETARY



## CHILDREN'S BUREAU

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